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ABSTRACT

The Task Force on School Facilities was asked to analyze research data, review literature, and collect testimony on current state policies related to the use of school facilities. Two papers are presented: (1) "Issues in School Facilities Use" (Jean G. McDonald); and (2) "School Facilities: State Role" (Jean G. McDonald). This report includes information on the charges to the task force, hearings and presenters, and additional resources. (JD)

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TASK FORCE ON SCHOOL FACILITIES

Supporting Works

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Time For Results

THE GOVERNORS' 1991 REPORT ON EDUCATION

TIME FOR RESULTS: The Governors' 1991 Report on Education

Supporting Works

Task Force on School Facilities

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August 1986.

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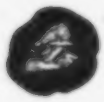
Many individuals and organizations have devoted enormous time and energy to the year-long effort that created "Time for Results: The Governors' 1991 Report on Education" and the "Supporting Works." The Governors who served on the task forces appointed key staff members who worked not only on their individual task force report, but often assisted other task forces as well. For the task force on school facilities these include: J. Michael Pichette, chairman, Montana; Carol Clark, Utah; Rex Cheatham, Alabama; Thomas Baldini, Michigan; Carol M. Siegert, North Dakota; and Nancy Freudenthal, Esq., Wyoming. Others who assisted included Governor's aides Martha Wahlstrand and Bette Hall of Montana. Considerable assistance was provided by the Council of Chief State School Officers. Jennie Carter and Keel Hunt of Gov. Lamar Alexander's office helped coordinate the overall effort.

The National Governors' Association Center for Policy Research and Analysis coordinated the year-long project. Professional staff and consultants include Joe Nathan, Joan L. Wills, Evelyn Ganzglass, Carol Eliason, Rae Young Bond, Linda Myers Dove, and Jean McDonald. Editorial support was provided by Mark Miller, Karen Eldridge, Diane Greene, and Alan Janesch. Expert secretarial assistance was provided by Beverly Bowers, Linda Burnette, Luisa Farrell, Francine Matthews, and Deborah Woods.

The Task Force on School Facilities of the National Governors' Association has been fortunate to receive the cooperation and aid of the distinguished panelists listed in this compendium. Dr. Charles Haughey and Jim Bencivenga of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education provided invaluable assistance throughout the work of the task force. Funding from the Lyndhurst Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation of New York made this work possible.



Charge to the Task Force on School Facilities

The Task Force on School Facilities was asked to analyze research data, review literature, and collect testimony to address the following questions:

A. What effects do year-round schools have on student and teacher performance?

B. Are capital costs a major or increasing drain on school budgets?

C. Is it feasible to charge enough for space use so that the costs of utilities and wear and tear do not offset the additional revenues from increased use?

D. Have states and school districts had experiences which convinced them that there are some groups or activities with which it is not easy or appropriate to share facilities?

E. What negative consequences of increased use of school facilities should state initiatives take into account?

F. How are states encouraging full-time use of vocational school equipment and facilities?

The task force was charged with answering the following policy-related questions:

A. What statewide incentives could be created to encourage greater cooperation and use of school facilities and equipment, particularly for the more costly vocational training facilities?

B. What statewide obstacles could be reduced to encourage greater use of school facilities and equipment?

C. What guidelines should be developed for implementation of joint use/shared facilities?

D. Do state funding formulas encourage new construction rather than rehabilitation of buildings?

Task Force Activities: Hearings and Presenters

The Task Force on School Facilities held hearings in Great Falls, Montana, November 19, 1985, and Washington, D.C., February 22, 1986. Witnesses at the first hearing raised critical facility-related issues, such as ways facilities may be used for community purposes, benefits of using school facilities year-round, and liability insurance problems. Also, the impact of demographic changes on school facilities and the growing problems of maintaining deteriorating school buildings were discussed.

Great Falls, Montana, November 19, 1985

Thomas Balakas
President-elect
National Council on Year-Round Education
San Diego, Calif.

Charles Ballinger
Executive Secretary
National Council on Year-Round Education
San Diego, Calif.

Wayne Buchanan
Montana School Boards Association

Joanne Erickson
Director
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Haver, Mont.

Gloria A. Gregg
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Montana State University
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Don Hamilton
Chairman
Great Falls School Board
Great Falls, Mont.

Ruby King-Williams
National Education Association
Washington, D.C.

Jesse Long
School Administrators of Montana

Harley Ruff
Elementary School Principal
Conrad, Mont.

Bob Ruthemeyer
Office of Montana Superintendent of Public Instruction

David Spathels
Superintendent
Genesee Intermediate School District
Flint, Mich.

Jerry Weast
Superintendent
Great Falls, Mont., Public Schools

Testimony from practicing architects and individuals directly involved with planning for educational facilities was presented at the second hearing.

Washington, D.C., February 22, 1986

Ben Graves
Vice President
Educational Facilities Laboratory of the Academy for Educational Development

Richard Passantino
American Institute of Architects
President
SAIC Architects
McLean, Va.

Yale Stenzler
Executive Director
Maryland State Interagency Committee on School Construction

PART TWO: Papers

ISSUES IN SCHOOL FACILITIES USE

Prepared by Jean G. McDonald
Consultant
National Governors' Association

American educational facilities reflect more than a century of changing demographic patterns, school laws, educational philosophy, economic forces, community attitudes and expectations regarding education, and local, state, and federal policies. The nineteenth century agrarian, small town society had vastly different needs for school facilities than does today's urbanized post industrial society. Contemporary school systems provide a multitude of educational services for a complex society. An aspect of education virtually unchanged from the past century's educational system is the school year calendar, which, with few exceptions, remains faithful to the needs of an agrarian lifestyle and work schedule.

America has invested heavily in public school buildings. Although it is nearly impossible to determine the precise dollar value of America's school buildings, given an estimated 4.9 billion square feet of school space in 1982 the cost of replacing the nations's public school stock is, at minimum, $238 billion.1/ Thus, school facilities issues are crucial, representing a major commitment of public resources, past and present. Public school space varies considerably from one state to another. Examples of total state public school building area include: Florida, 174.5 million square feet; Maryland, 104 million square feet; New York, 242.7 million square feet; Washington, 101 million square feet; Oklahoma, 80 million square feet; and North Carolina, 131.9 million square feet.

School facilities are a facet of education not easily altered; a school system and community must live with past decisions about school buildings' location, number, size, and layout. Yet the demands on those facilities have changed enormously over the years as populations have grown and declined and as new education initiatives -- for example, educational reforms and special services for the handicapped -- have resulted in modifications in the use of school buildings. However, provincial attitudes regarding the single use of public buildings have hampered school systems in adjusting to changing demands.

A variety of unforeseen trends in the late 1970s, such as a decline in school-age population, fewer adults with children in school, lack of public support for school bonds and increased taxes, inflation, and a steep increase in energy costs, forced public officials and school administrators to reexamine the management of and approach to educational facility usage. The development of an active community education movement facilitated attitudinal change as state and local policymakers faced tough decisions of how best to use scarce financial resources.

Postwar Population Trends

Historically a powerful factor affecting building decisions has been the growth or decline in the school-age population. In the decades since World

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This paper reviews literature and research on school facilities, synthesizes the testimony presented at the two hearings on school facilities, and presents models of state activities and programs. The author owes a special debt of gratitude to Dr. Yale Stenzler, executive director of the Maryland Interagency Committee on School Construction and Dr. Bill DeJong, executive director of the National Community Education Association.

War II, school districts have generally experienced a rollercoaster effect in child population growth patterns. The postwar baby boom lasted for nearly two decades resulting in an enormous strain on educational facilities.

The surge of births was not confined to the United States. In the County of Hertfordshire, U.K., a new school building was finished and occupied every three weeks in the 1950s (Programme on Educational Building). The U.S. birth rate reached a high of 3.7 children per family in the late 1950s. Births peaked in 1961 when 4.3 million children were born. Nearly one-half of the U.S. population in the fifties and sixties was under eighteen, and over one-half of American households had children in school. By 1970 the school-age population reached 51.3 million (DeJong and Gardner).

Suburban school districts experienced the most severe growth as young families left the central cities for the amenities of suburban life. Feverishly, suburban schools were built to meet dramatic increases in school population; in suburban Detroit, Chicago, Boston, and other cities, schools were frequently built within every square mile (DeJong and Gardner, p. 69).

The 1970s presented educators with a markedly different challenge as the fertility rate dropped to 1.78 by 1975 (DeJong and Gardner) and the school-age population suffered a rapid decline. Thirteen percent fewer children were of school age in 1983 (44.5 million) than in 1970 (51.3 million). Only 27 percent of adults have direct ties to school systems. In New York state alone, school enrollment declined from 3.5 million students in 1970 to 2.8 million in 1980 (New York State Board of Regents). The shrinkage of the school-age population had enormous ramifications for public school systems. Across the nation, school districts were saddled with excess school space in the form of partially and totally unused school buildings. The dilemma of decline presented different challenges and opportunities than did the dilemma of growth.

In the early 1980s the birth rate accelerated as the baby boom generation fully entered the childbearing years. Between 1980 and 1984 the number of preschoolers experienced the highest increase in sixteen years -- 9 percent ("Vocational Training News"). Currently, the baby boomlet is felt in the primary grades, and will affect grades five to nine by the late 1980s and high schools by 1991 (McNett, p. 7).

Growth is being experienced unevenly across the country; specifically, Sunbelt states are gaining school-age population while Frostbelt states' populations are declining. For example, Utah's school-age population has increased 20 percent in the past five years (Bangerter, p. 3). Central city school districts, as in the past, are losing student population. Some school districts, such as Montgomery County, Maryland, face the challenge of accommodating both decline and growth within the district according to Dr. Yale Stenzler in testimony at the second hearing of the school facilities task force.

Another population trend has critical implications for American education: the aging of the population. Teenagers are outnumbered by people over 65. As a result, lifelong learning, adult education, and senior citizen

programs have gained in popularity and usefulness. With more people of retirement age, the schools become a natural facility, conveniently located, for elder programming. The advantages of involving senior citizens in the school setting are many, including increased support for and ties to the public education system and intergenerational interaction.

Changing Workforce Patterns

Additional societal forces place demands on educational facilities. For one, the surge of mothers into the workforce (in 1984, 24.1 million children age thirteen and under had working mothers, according to the National Commission on Working Women) has created immense demands for child care. Adequate day care options for preschoolers as well as after-school care for school-age children are sadly lacking in America. School facilities can provide sorely needed space for preschool programs and are a convenient setting for care programs before and after school for school-age children. A study in California in 1978 discovered 372,000 children ages five to fourteen needed care before and after school; licensed care was available for less than one-third (106,000 spaces) (Cohen, p.2). In both types of care the programs can be school sponsored or operated by outside agencies.

The prevalence of single-parent families, primarily headed by mothers, has combined with other factors to increase the poverty rate, particularly for children; 14 million children (22 percent) lived in poverty in 1983 (Hodgkinson). Large numbers of children living in poverty results in greater demands on human service agencies, for which, some have suggested, the schools may offer a prime location.

Economic changes have resulted in the need for a workforce that can rapidly adapt to technological advances and changes in demand. The American economy has transformed from a manufacturing to an increasingly automated and service-oriented economy. High tech is replacing heavy manufacturing while knowledge and intelligence have become prime resources (New York State Board of Regents). Under such circumstances, retraining programs and continuing education are essential. School facilities are appropriate for retraining and job preparation programs, whether business- or school-sponsored. School/business partnerships are increasingly popular, and sharing facilities can be an additional way to make the partnership work (Schoeny).

Classrooms appropriate for the new technology differ from traditional "shops." "Clean rooms" that are air filtered, dust free and temperature controlled can house the latest technologically advanced equipment (Keough and Earthman). Tomorrow's "shops" will need equipment to train holographic specialists and robotic mechanics. Upgraded equipment, such as computers and laser equipment, will be necessary components of vocationally oriented education for all ages.

Other Trends In Late Seventies

Population and workforce changes have not been the only forces to affect school facilities. Several factors in the late 1970s placed stress on educational facilities and school systems. Skyrocketing inflation rates

strained school districts' financial capabilities at the same time that taxpayer revolts in several states limited property taxes, a major base of school finance. Taxpayer support of school bonds decreased from 1965 to 1977, with approval rates falling from 75 percent to 56 percent (Piele, p. 693). In addition, the number of bond referenda nationwide declined from 2,041 in 1965 to 858 in 1977, reflecting the decline in new school construction. School tax levy referenda were more frequently defeated as well. Missouri refusal rates rose from 29 percent in 1972 to 47 percent in 1975. In New Jersey, in 1965 to 1976, school tax levy opposition rose dramatically, from 13 percent to 57 percent (Piele, p. 693).

An energy crisis in the mid-seventies caused fuel costs to soar, wreaking havoc with school budgets. A 1975 survey by the Federal Energy Administration indicated school energy costs had increased almost 50 percent in two years with per-pupil costs increasing from twenty dollars to twenty-nine dollars in the same period ("School Energy Management," p. 1). Between 1972 and 1980, electrical costs for the Chicago school systems rose by 494 percent and natural gas costs increased by 196 percent ("The Maintenance Gap," p. 3). Older school buildings were energy inefficient, and the newest stock of educational facilities, built during the baby boom era, were hastily constructed with little consideration for energy costs, further exacerbating the problem.

Federal initiatives in the 1970s required school districts to modify facilities to meet upgraded health and safety standards. School districts were required to make buildings accessible to the physically handicapped, as mandated by Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1974 ("The Maintenance Gap," p. 5). State and local school systems have had to undertake asbestos removal programs and to replace or alter boilers to meet clean air standards, both required by the Environmental Protection Agency. The cost of meeting these regulations and laws can be prohibitive ("The Maintenance Gap").

Any one of the above factors could affect school facilities; the cumulative impact could be staggering. In light of the burden placed on educational facilities, school systems have managed very well-given remarkable doses of state and local creativity and leadership. The remainder of this paper will examine how school facilities have been affected by recent trends, and the responses of state and local jurisdictions to the challenge.

EFFECT ON SCHOOL FACILITIES

School Closure

As school populations declined in the seventies, school districts were faced with an excess of school buildings and the question of building closure. As early as 1975, 80 percent of districts surveyed nationally were planning to close or had closed school buildings. According to DeJong and Gardner, between 1970 and 1982, 7,000 school buildings were vacated; the real estate value of these buildings was estimated at $6 billion, with estimated replacement costs of $20 billion. A survey conducted by the General Accounting Office found 2,743 vacant schools in nineteen states at the beginning of 1978-79; one-third of the schools were in good condition and

well-located. Michigan, alone, had 366 vacant schools in 1981, according to the Education Commission of the States.

By 1975, states were responding to the mounting crisis of surplus schools. Illinois established a Task Force on Declining Enrollments to study options for utilizing excess space. A Michigan task force handed down recommendations in 1977 providing guidance to local districts in managing underutilized facilities. A subcommittee of the Commission on California State Government Organization and Economy reviewed school facility usage and recommended against a statewide policy, given the variety of local district characteristics (Ringers).

School closure proved to be a highly controversial issue. Citizen opposition was keen and, in some locales, effectively hindered officials from closing schools. In Roseville, Michigan, citizen opposition was so fierce the school board decided to sell all district schools. When three schools were sold, citizens quieted down (Mayer and Steenland). One study of school closure found, in general, neighborhoods lost vitality, support for public education diminished, and racial isolation sometimes occurred (Hess). The Washington D.C., school system lost a large number of students, but, as elsewhere, attempts to close schools met with great opposition (Feinberg).

Citizen Involvement in Closure Decisions

Public involvement in the decision-making process and effective facilities management, became crucial variables in school closure decisions, as countless school districts discovered. In Shaker Heights, a Cleveland suburb, 1,200 citizens attended a meeting on closing schools. Through a group decision-making process, community priorities for the use of surplus space were discovered (DeJong 1986). Seattle wrestled with community conflict over school closure for several years before resolving the conflicts. Now Seattle has a school district property manager and a School Use Advisory Committee, including citizen representatives, which studies proposed uses of buildings, conducts public meetings, and makes recommendations to the city for zoning purposes (Carroll, Smith, and Todd). In Illinois, state law prevents school boards from holding executive meetings to discuss "conditions of sale, lease, or other alternative uses of school district property" because public involvement in the decision-making process is considered crucial (Illinois State Board of Education, p.1).

Options When Schools are Closed

When school systems confront school closure due to population loss, major options are demolition; mothballing (shutting down all water and mechanical systems) (Fiala); leasing; establishing a community school; and selling the building (Hess, Educational Facilities Laboratories, Council of Educational Facility Planners, Graves, American Association of School Administrators). At the initial task force hearing in Great Falls, Gov. Ted Schwinden of Montana described a unique example of school demolition. An old school building was demolished during the filming of a movie, providing the production with a cheap prop and the school district with an inexpensive method of eliminating the school. Mothballing has the advantage of school district retention of the

property; however, start-up costs for reuse are extremely high. An empty building demoralizes the neighborhood, wastes space, and attracts vandalism (DeJong 1986).

Leasing a school building, whether long or short term, keeps the building in use while retaining the property. The school district has the option of using the building in the future, if merited by population growth. In addition, leasing may have the advantage of allowing the community to keep part of the facility for community use, even when a school is closed. Leasing also can bring much needed revenue into a school district. For example, the Seattle school district received rental revenues of $1.25 million in 1982-83 (Narner). School buildings may be leased for a wide variety of purposes, as examples below will demonstrate. Sale of a school building is a more drastic action, yet careful analysis may find selling the most reasonable alternative. Former school buildings serve as apartment complexes, centers for the arts, shopping centers, business headquarters, community centers, and nursing homes.

As stated previously, retention of a building gives the district the option of reopening a school if population increases dramatically in the neighborhood. In reality, this option may not be as easy as it sounds. Leased buildings may have undergone considerable modification in order to be used as an office building or art center. "Undoing" that work may require extensive remodeling and expense and must be undertaken with careful planning. "The schools cannot suddenly decide that all available space must be used for the K-12 population and that services housed in previously underused space must find new facilities" (Kliminski, p. 78).

State Laws and School Closure

Before determining the future of a vacant school building, local officials must be aware of state laws and regulations affecting surplus school dispensation. When a school district decides to close a school, the district retains ownership in all but four states, according to a recent survey (Graves). In all states, the school district can either lease or sell the building; in all but three states the school district can decide to demolish it. Giving the building away is authorized in twenty-three states. Regardless of the school board's decision as to use of the building, voters in ten states must approve the board's action. Public bids are required in sixteen states, and the board must grant first priority to other public use in six states.

Proceeds from the sale or lease of vacant school buildings may be spent at the discretion of the school district in twenty-seven states. In the remaining states, revenue use is restricted; for example, in thirteen states, proceeds must be applied to capital expenditures. (Two states apply the restriction to sale only, not lease.) Rent or sale proceeds must meet debt retirement in twelve states. (One state applies the restriction to sales only.) Seven additional states require the revenue to be added to current funds (Graves).

Underutilized Schools

Under normal circumstances, school-age population loss in a district occurs gradually, leading to underutilized and partially filled schools. For example, The Washington Post recently reported that the D.C. school district has 42,000 excess seats, amounting to one-third of its pupil spaces. Some student reduction may be advantageous to a school building, allowing a more comfortable, less crowded learning environment. In addition, contemporary schools offer a variety of programs, each of which must find a "home" in the school building: The nurse, speech therapist, counselor, and English as a Second Language teacher all need space for their work. Computers and other new equipment may require separate rooms. According to Ben Graves' testimony at the second task force hearing, a school's population may drop from 500 to 400, yet the building may be fully used with 100 fewer students. Should the population increase to 500, the school will find itself overcrowded. In addition, educational reforms that mandate lower pupil/teacher ratios or school-sponsored preschool programs for four-year-olds will require more space; underpopulated schools can become fully populated in meeting the new standards.

Options of utilizing partially filled schools are varied and exciting. During school hours, buildings can share unutilized space with other public agencies, day care centers, senior citizens centers and classes, art studios, nonprofit organizations, and other uses compatible with educational purposes. If allowed by state law, the school district may lease or share space with other daytime users. If leasing, the board will need to make decisions regarding fees and user charges. Regardless of fee policy, a board must carefully consider guidelines for joint use of buildings during school hours (Arnold, Akers). For example, the Seattle Public School Board has defined surplus school space as "instructional space in excess of forty square feet per elementary student and forty-five square feet per high school student" (Hess, p.6). This enables the board to determine space available on a district wide basis. The board decided $6.15 per square foot was needed to support reasonable levels of maintenance and operation (Hess, p.6). Of course, the Seattle figure per square foot may not be appropriate for other locations and school districts must take care to determine the actual cost before establishing a leasing rate.

The Community School Concept

Opening the doors of school buildings for community purposes and maximizing educational facility usage day in, day out, and year round is the philosophy of the community education movement. While community education was championed by the Mott Foundation as early as the 1930s, the concept has become particularly attractive in recent years for a variety of reasons. Fluctuating populations and excess school space popularize the notion of sharing school space. A rising tide of senior citizens need programs; community education is one answer. Businesses want to use the gym at 7:00 a.m. for employees or use school computers in the evening; community education sets the stage for school/business partnerships. Fewer adults are tied to the schools, yet their votes are necessary to pass school levies; community programming encourages a greater public stake in the schools.

Community schools are popular for a variety of other reasons. School vandalism is a problem of great magnitude; in the years 1970 to 1973, school systems and taxpayers spent $600 million to repair and replace vandalized schools (Deaver, p.1). Schools that are used long hours for community purposes are allegedly less prone to vandalism. Parental involvement is considered crucial to help students meet the new educational standards; opening the school doors may help parents feel comfortable in the school setting. The public health department may rent space for a child wellness program; schools may have the space to provide, and sharing costs results in savings to taxpayers. Child care needs are enormous; schools can provide desirable space at a reasonable cost to these programs. Multiple uses of schools are increasingly common and whether these are designated as "community education programs," that philosophy has provided the environment for facilitating greater educational facility use. In fact, while school populations have declined, needs for school facilities are greater than ever for the entire population.

Deteriorating Educational Infrastructure

American school buildings are in a poor state of repair as was dramatically illustrated in the 1983 report "The Maintenance Gap." Recent trends have contributed to the rapid deterioration of school buildings. Inflation and escalating energy costs meant many school districts deferred maintenance during the late seventies, creating a backlog of repairs. High teacher costs and declining enrollments discouraged school systems from sinking money into repairs, yet facility expenditures continued to mount. Buildings were aging (nearly 20 percent of school buildings in older industrial cities were built before 1920) and "newer" schools built during the baby boom were constructed to serve immediate and not long-term needs; many were built with a life span of twenty years. So even newer schools needed repair. Additionally, federal health and safety requirements, such as asbestos removal, have eaten into maintenance funds. The California report "A Study of the Utilization of Public School Facilities" (1978) stated that "underutilization of facilities and the poor maintenance of facilities tend to be mutually aggravating conditions" (Ringers, p. 10).

"The Maintenance Gap" study estimates the accumulated cost of repairing the nation's public schools to be $25 billion. Problems identified by the report include outdated plumbing, electrical wiring, and heating systems. Roofing problems are severe and are ranked first by school districts; repairing heating and ventilating systems rank next in priority. The proportion of school budgets devoted to maintenance of facilities steadily declined from 1920 (14.1 percent) through 1960 (9.6 percent) up to 1982 (6.7 percent). A recently released California report confirmed deteriorating conditions in that state's educational infrastructure. The estimated cost of readiness and safety for school buildings and buses is $500 million to $1 billion for each year from 1985-86 through 1990-91 (Guthrie and Kirst). And a 1985 study of Kansas school districts of fewer than 1,000 students discovered an average building age of thirty-seven years and a backlog of essential repairs for roofing, lighting, heating, and insulation (Stewart). No price tag was attached.

Asbestos

The asbestos problem warrants special attention because of its central importance at this time. Public concern over the issue is high, and school districts are under pressure to solve the problem. According to an AASA survey of asbestos in schools, 98 percent of districts responding had inspected for asbestos (Hunter, p. 14). Eighty percent of the districts had accomplished some abatement. The cost of asbestos removal is high, estimated at six dollars per square foot; for districts with millions of square feet of interior space, such as Fairfax County, Virginia (17 million square feet in 1983), removal costs can be prohibitive ("The Maintenance Gap").

Responding to Growth

Although concentrated in the Sunbelt, growth is being felt by many school districts as the country experiences a mild upturn in birth rate. Just coming off an era of decline, school districts are wary of hasty undertaking of building projects. Taxpayer support is cautious and, in general, taxpayers and officials want tax dollars spent in the most efficient way possible. Alternatives to building include double shifts or extended school days and year-round education, all of which may accommodate a growing student population with existing facilities. Provo, Utah, was recently cited by Gov. Norman Bangerter for outstanding effort at year-round education as an answer to burgeoning school growth (Eliason).

Another option involves transporting students from overflowing to partially filled schools within the same district or, alternatively, shifting more grades to secondary buildings while secondary enrollments are down (Caffarella). Modular additions are a low-cost alternative to new construction and may be transferred to other schools as needed. School buildings may be designed initially with modular classrooms or designed so that modular classrooms can be added in the future. At the second task force hearing, Yale Stenzler described a three-story modular addition to a Maryland high school. The California State Allocation Board suggests alternatives to building for California school districts. Discovering unused space in existing school buildings, such as corridors or cafeterias, may help a district solve a space problem. Nonschool buildings, including churches, commercial space, and industrial parks, may have room to house overflow classes. However, California legislation limits the use of nonschool facilities to three years, unless the structure meets Field Act requirements. Another suggestion is "borrowing" space from neighboring school districts, when feasible. The resource center school plan "expands" school space by offering special programs, such as sciences, the arts, and communication, in available space in nearby nonschool buildings. Interagency sharing is another suggestion to reduce building and leasing costs (California State Allocation Board).

In some cases, construction will be unavoidable. When new buildings are necessary, lessons from the past two decades may encourage school districts to plan more flexible school buildings designed for multiple purposes and alternative future use. Some facility planners suggest locating new schools in areas zoned so future commercial use is possible. New schools will be

multiple-use facilities with flexible interior space utilizing partitions to accommodate future changes in use (Manning et al.). Designing schools as lifelong learning centers, learning/resource centers, easily convertible to uses other than traditional public education is advocated by experts (DeJong and Gardner). As the Programme on Educational Building of the Organization of Economic and Community Development stated in its report "Surplus Space in Schools: An Opportunity," the stock of education facilities must be viewed as one part of the total public building resources. Educational building policies need to be considered from "different and wider viewpoints than in the recent past" (p. 9).

Year-Round Education

Schools may make use of facilities throughout the year by offering summer school programs for remedial or accelerated purposes. This is an educational strategy rather than an attempt to alleviate overcrowding. For school districts faced with student growth, year-round scheduling may be an alternative means to accommodate that growth. According to the California State Allocation Board's "Handbook on Options Available to School Districts," benefits from year-round scheduling are twofold: "First, by making the schools a continuous focus of community activity, year-round education can enhance a district's overall effectiveness significantly. Second, year-round operations can result in more effective use of facilities" (p. 5).

Year-round scheduling may follow a variety of formats. For example, the 45/15 plan offers nine weeks of school and three weeks of vacation. In overcrowded schools, students are divided into four groups; at any one time, three groups attend school and one group is on vacation. The 60/20 plan works on the same principle but students attend school for twelve weeks with four weeks of vacation (California State Allocation Board).

Proponents of year-round education have demonstrated that capital outlay costs are reduced by use of school throughout the year. At the first task force hearing, Dr. Charles Ballinger, executive secretary of the National Council on Year-Round Education, observed that Oxnard, California, realized a capital savings of $14 million in four years through year-round programming. Operational costs are lowered "by spreading fixed costs over a larger number of pupils educated," and attendance rates increase for teachers and students. Finally, when shorter vacation periods are substituted for the traditional long summer vacation, student retention of subject matter is enhanced.

STATE ROLE IN MULTIPLE USE OF SCHOOL FACILITIES

States play a major role in educational facilities issues. State school facility policies range along a continuum that, at one end, leaves facility decisions and financing to the local school districts. At the opposite end of the spectrum, states actively regulate facility decisions and heavily finance local school construction and maintenance. A mail survey of state departments of education for the Governors' Task Force on School Facilities provides timely information regarding this topic. The survey is described in greater detail in "School Facilities: State Role."

Of fifty states and the District of Columbia responding, only twenty (39 percent) restrict the use of school property by other than school-age children. New Jersey restricts use during the school day; Maryland allows school property for nonschool use only when it does not interfere with school sessions or activities. However, priority is given to nonprofit day care programs before, after, and during school hours. While Illinois leaves decisions on use to the local education agency, liability insurance is perceived as a constraint on school usage. States such as California and Utah have "civic center" legislation that designates school buildings as centers open to activities in the public interest.

Regarding leasing of school facilities for nonschool purposes, twenty-nine states (57 percent) statutorily regulate such practices. States lacking statutory authority (22, or 43 percent) believe such decisions are best left to local authorities. In general, states that regulate leasing offer a variety of restrictions. In New Mexico, the State Board of Finance must approve a local board leasing decision; Mississippi allows the electorate to petition for a referendum on the lease; barring a petition drive, the local board makes the final decision. Long-term school facility leases in Hawaii must be approved by the Department of Land and Natural Resources. In New Jersey, leases longer than five years must have the state commissioner of education's approval.

The majority of the states surveyed do not have a state policy on rental charges, again deferring to local school boards. Only thirteen states regulate local fee charges in some form. Regulations range from detailed policies in Hawaii and Delaware to more general enabling provisions such as Oklahoma's, which allows fees to be charged if the lease agrees to proper maintenance and insurance against facility loss.

Only two states and the District of Columbia responded that statutory provisions do not allow schools to dispose of closed or surplus school buildings. In Massachusetts, the school committee transfers the building to the municipality, which, in turn, may dispose of the excess school facility. Other states regulate disposal of closed school buildings in a variety of ways. In South Carolina, the county board of education or county governing body must consent to sale of school property by school trustees. School property to be sold in New York must be appraised and subsequently approved by the voters. Also, voter approval is required in Arizona. The New Mexico Board of Educational Finance must approve district sale of surplus schools.

Interagency sharing of school facilities varies from state to state, although eleven states lack joint use provisions. In other states and D.C., sharing may consist of meal preparation for the elderly (Nevada), interchange of educational services (South Carolina), sharing with any local agency (Nebraska), sharing with private business and federal, state, or local government (New Jersey), and state willingness to pay up to one-half the cost of development of joint use facilities (Florida). Some states, such as Pennsylvania and Texas, leave these decisions to the local school boards.

Year-round and/or extended day use of schools is limited by statute in only a few states. However, year-round scheduling can be limited by state

funding formulas that assist schools for a specific number of school days, for example, 180 to 185. While Nebraska law allows an expanded educational calendar, local district plans must be approved by the state department of education. The state of Vermont must grant waivers to local districts wishing to institute year-round programming; waivers are allowed. Six states, and most recently Arkansas (1985), statutorily encourage a year-round school schedule.

Liability is a crucial issue for jurisdictions in the mid-1980s. However, most states (forty) leave the question of liability for school leasing or sharing to the local education authority. Ten of the respondents have provisions granting school districts authority to require liability insurance coverage by nonschool organizations. In New Mexico, the State Board of Finance must approve tenant liability policies. Florida school boards may require holdharmless agreements and certificates of insurance for high-risk use or use involving admission fees.

State Financing of Local School Facilities

State involvement in capital funding for school facilities ranges from 100 percent financing in Hawaii to no funding in sixteen states. Of the thirty-three states providing some level of capital assistance to local education agencies, eighteen use an equalization formula in distributing funds. The formulas may be based on ability to pay (Rhode Island) or a variation thereof. For example, under Georgia's formula, the local school district's property valuation per child determines the system/state share. However, regardless of local valuation, state funds amount to at least 75 percent and no more than 90 percent of approvable projects.

In sixteen states, funding of local capital school improvements has increased over the past five years, although increases in Hawaii and Wyoming have been slight. Dramatic gains have occurred in Delaware and Florida; Delaware assistance to local school facilities rose from $1.03 million in 1982 to $4.4 million in 1986, a jump of 327 percent. Florida aid for educational capital expenditures jumped from $150 million in 1981-82 to $215 million in 1985-86. Capital assistance for local school districts has stayed the same in six states. Kentucky aid has remained even over the past five years but the Department of Education anticipates a change due to the recent legislative creation of a School Construction Commission. Expenditures of $18 million for fiscal 1987 and fiscal 1988 for annual debt service will bond approximately $140 to $150 million in new school construction.

An additional six states have suffered declines in state expenditures for local school construction and maintenance. Losses in Illinois capital funding has been more drastic: an Illinois official noted that "a major $400 million program between 1973 and 1980 has dwindled to only pork barrel." Washington state has recently changed its school construction funding formula. In a June 1986 vote, the California electorate adopted Proposition 46, permitting school districts (and other local jurisdictions) to ask voters to raise additional tax revenue for capital outlay purposes. The passage of Proposition 46 is considered to be a major reversal of Proposition 13, the

1978 initiative which severely limited the ability of local jurisdictions to increase property taxes.

State Funding In Maryland

Maryland's State Public School Construction Program has been a model of state financing of local school construction (Interagency Committee on School Construction). Established in 1971 with a bond authorization of $150 million for fiscal 1972, the program has financed about 800 school construction projects in the state, providing local property tax relief and equalizing facility cost and quality statewide. In addition, the state reimbursed local school divisions for outstanding debt obligations as of June 30, 1967 (Stenzler). General obligation bonds sold by the state finance the building program, and state property taxes pay off the bonds. Through the years the state has authorized $1.5 billion worth of new bonds.

The annual state facilities planning process follows guidelines established in the "Public School Construction Program Administrative Procedures Guide." Local district facility needs are prioritized each fall for the coming fiscal year and a five-year plan is developed. An established procedure of departmental review, review and hearings by the Interagency Committee for Public School Construction (IAC), and final review and hearings by the Board of Public Works (the Governor, the comptroller, and the treasurer) results in a list of projects to be funded for the next fiscal year. Requests for fiscal 1986 amounted to $90 million, yet the state funded $44.3 million. State policy encourages multiple use of facilities whether for senior citizen activities, city, county, and state office space, or after-school care or day care. A publication, "The Better Utilization of Public Facilities in Maryland: Ideas and Options" -- cosponsored by the Maryland State Board of Education, the IAC, the Maryland Association of Boards of Education, and five other organizations -- provides excellent suggestions on multiple uses of active school buildings as well as a discussion of school closure. The latter includes chapters on schools for housing, maintaining closed schools, selling surplus schools, and zoning.

STATE ACTIONS

State leadership has led to numerous actions addressing facility-related issues. In 1983, the Illinois State Board of Education published "Alternative Uses for Surplus School Facilities," providing guidance to school districts with excess school space. Under Gov. Bob Graham, a Florida Task Force on Community Schools issued a report in 1979 recommending the conversion of existing schools into human resource centers, encouraging the use of school facilities by other state agencies, and promoting interagency cooperation. The task force discovered the State Department of Health and Rehabilitation Services rented 2.25 million square feet of space at an annual cost of $13.3 million. The Department of General Services rented 4.4 million square feet of space paying an annual rent of more than $20 million, yet the schools were planning to phase out 4.43 million square feet of floor space. The Ohio Governor's Task Force on Community Uses for School Buildings (1980) recommended the State Department of Education undertake an active role in assisting school districts with the development and planning of multipurpose

school facilities. The task force recommended legislation to provide financial assistance to school boards implementing the community school concept.

Other states have promoted school facility maximization through community school policies. North Carolina passed a Community Schools Act in June 1977 that has been implemented in varying degrees in all 141 school districts. The Kentucky Department of Education has published the useful Kentucky Handbook for Community Education. In 1984, Gov. Martha Layne Collins and the state superintendent of education were among 20,000 citizens attending town forums on the importance of citizen involvement in education issues. Gov. Collins hosted a conference on School/Community Partnerships in December 1984. The "Alabama Community Education State Plan, 1985-1990" encourages maximum use of school facilities for community activities and suggests future school construction or remodeling be planned for multiple use. Faced with a severe excess of school space (a projected 826,000 empty pupil spaces by 1990), the New York Regents released a report in October 1983 supporting school community partnerships and shared school facilities. Financial incentives for community schools statewide, review of legal barriers to school/community partnerships, and a planning handbook on local district options for long-range use of school facilities were recommended.

The Hawaii Department of Education recently issued guidelines for local school buildings, "Use of School Buildings, Facilities and Grounds." The report provides regulations on facility use fees and charges, scheduling of classrooms for nonschool use, application procedures, requirements such as liability release, and samples of use forms. The manual is a practical and useful guide for school administrators.

Local Models Of Innovative Use Of School Facilities

Issues of population growth and decline and other trends described previously have had direct impact on local school districts. Architect Richard Passantino stated at the second task force hearing, "School boards are finding themselves becoming landlords for other users of surplus schools while they wait the return of students to their buildings." As school boards struggle to arrive at decisions on the best use of excess space and future building plans (preferably with strong community input), thousands of creative school facilities-related decisions have evolved.

Closed buildings have been sold or leased for countless purposes. In Seattle, some of the closed schools are operated by local community and neighborhood organizations that, in turn, lease space to public and private tenants, compatible with the neighborhood. A former high school in Phoenix has been converted to an office building. Herricks School District on Long Island transformed a former junior high school into a community center that serves nearly 5,000 residents a year with senior citizen services, adult education, day care, and after school care (New York State Board of Regents). Gloucester High School in Massachusetts was converted to Central Grammar Apartments, purchased by a nonprofit group for $96,000 (Hess). Dudgeon Elementary School in Madison, Wisconsin, closed in 1970, is operated by a nonprofit management corporation from 7:00 a.m to 10:00 p.m. Programs

offered at Dudgeon include a preschool, day care, an alternative elementary school, after-school care, and adult education. When Eldridge School in Elmhurst, Illinois, closed, the Parks and Recreation Department signed a five-year lease for the building; the department pays all operating and maintenance costs, and the school system had five years to decide about future use of the school (Hess). Arts centers, such as the Pasadena Arts Workshop and former Kramer Elementary School in Dallas, have proved popular uses for closed schools.

Former schools have been converted to office buildings; a historical school building in Dallas houses Sedco, Inc. The Public Service Corporation of Tulsa maintains its headquarters in what was once known as the second largest high school in the nation. The Peapach and Gladstone Municipal Complex in New Jersey is housed in a three-story elementary school built in 1900. Apartment complexes, both nonprofit and commercial, are frequently created from one-time school buildings. In Iowa, a robotics plant has been installed in a former school. McKinley High School in Canton, Ohio, now serves as a multipurpose center, including a nursing facility and apartments for the elderly, a day care center, a medical clinic, commercial office space, plus 8,500 square feet of retail space. When school population was booming, the Lakewood, Colorado, school district built several "cottage schools." Dispersed throughout the district, these "homes" were constructed without interior walls. When the structures were no longer needed for school use, they were converted into three- and four-bedroom bedroom low-income homes (Graves).

When state laws permit, school districts may lease or share excess school space during the school day. As noted above, most state laws leave rental policies to local board discretion. In an article in the American School Board Journal, Oliver Brown, assistant superintendent of planning and management services in Cambridge, Massachusetts, describes in detail plans for using all available property when not in use. He gives examples of empty classrooms converted into day care centers, empty school kitchens rented by caterers or for special events, and school computers utilized by small businesses. Brown provides excellent suggestions for schools considering creative property management. A description of the Akron, Ohio, school board's policies on school sharing is also commended to administrators desiring guidance. School board members in Akron have developed a strong but flexible policy for school usage by outside organizations. In 1983, the district's buildings were rented for 6,000 hours, resulting in $100,000 in rent. In a paper presented to the National School Board Association, James T. Akers discussed policy do's and don'ts for school leasing and sharing based on the Akron experience. Akers contends state courts have upheld widened noneducational usage of school buildings. However, since the issue has not been firmly resolved, Akers suggests boards of education should be alert to relevant court cases on building usage within their state.

Examples Of Sharing Of School Facilities

When the Okemos, Michigan, Building Utilization Advisory Committee studied sharing of school space for community purposes, they learned of "Gray Integration" in Harbor Springs, Michigan. A senior citizens center,

incorporated into an ongoing school, allows senior citizens to assist in classrooms while having access to facilities such as the library and media equipment (Okemos Public Schools). Horizon Middle School in Aurora, Colorado, was designed with multiple uses in mind. The school houses a branch of the city library (costs shared by the school and library), a community center for the city parks department, three preschool classes, and an overflow sixth grade class from an elementary school. On Sundays, two churches use the school for worship services (Grady).

Charlotte Street School in the South Bronx received a Mott Foundation grant to become a community school (New York State Board of Regents). Now, in addition to regular classes, the school involves parents through English-as-a-second-language instruction, office skills, consumer education, computer classes, medical services, family counseling, nutrition, and physical fitness. In addition, the Goodwill Baptist Church, the Cooperative Extension, health services, and ROSA (a theater group) use this fully shared facility. Examples of outstanding community schools include the Quincy Center (Boston), Thomas Jefferson Center (Arlington, Virginia), Marie Reed (D.C.), Dunbar High School (Baltimore), the John F. Kennedy School and Community Center (Atlanta), and Whitmer Human Resources Center (Flint, Michigan). The Harry A. Conte Community School in New Haven, Connecticut has operated since 1962 to provide education for all ages and special services to the needy, seven days a week until 9:00 p.m. Durham County, North Carolina, uses its schools for a wide range of purposes with planned activities for all age groups.

Stow, Ohio, a suburb of Akron, is in the planning stages for a new school facility that can be adjusted to multiple-use. The planning process has been an exciting joint venture as community members, the architect, the school board, and administrators all have been involved. More planning of this nature can be anticipated in future building decisions.

Interagency Sharing

Proponents of interagency use of public school buildings believe health services, counseling, libraries, youth services, and other governmental agencies may be housed appropriately along side ongoing school programs. Centrality and convenience of the school location result in high use of the other agency services, proving cost-effective. The joint use of public and higher education facilities proposed by Gov. Bangerter may be an economical way to manage issues of growth and decline at all levels of education. Interagency collaboration may result in higher quality services, an increase in both number of services and people served, more visible services, and less duplication.

Obstacles To Multiple Use of Facilities

While more fully utilized school facilities may be a goal for taxpayers and policymakers alike as we move toward the twenty-first century, many obstacles may block goal achievement. Interagency use of public school facilities may be hampered by legal, political, economic, and social barriers, according to C. William Day. He feels past traditions defining the "single use" of a building are difficult to overcome. The public may be unaware of

the possibility, efficiency, and savings of building sharing; "turfism" may deter cooperation among agencies. Florida's "Report of the Governor's Task Force on Community Schools" cites additional obstacles to interagency facility sharing: professional parochialism, little awareness of benefits from cooperation, unfamiliarity of education and human service personnel with one another, lack of incentives to ensure ongoing maximum use of school facilities, lack of necessity to check on existing available school space before planning for new facility construction for other agencies, and practical considerations, such as who pays for what and legal constraints on liability (real and imagined). In general, positive outcomes from joint use of buildings are believed to balance negative aspects.

School boards and personnel may operate as obstacles to sharing of school facilities. George Kliminski questions if school systems are capable of accepting challenges of opening their doors to the community. He believes sharing schools will require a redefinition of public school role. Conflicts may occur over the use of space, according to Oliver Brown. If the school kitchen is rented out on the weekends, a student/parent breakfast might be difficult, if not impossible, to schedule. He also cites problems such as neighborhood opposition, lack of parking, legal tangles, and greater maintenance that results from heavier usage. Another obstacle is principal and teacher attitudes: a principal may not wish to share "her" building, or a teacher, "his" classroom (Schoeny).

Zoning regulations have hampered multiple shared and varying uses of schools, both open and closed. Schools located in the center of residential communities are most likely zoned for single family use. Consequently, sharing the facility or selling or leasing a closed building may require a zoning change, which can serve to block the proposed use (DeJong). One solution to the zoning dilemma in the future is careful planning of a new school site with consideration for zoning designation.

Another barrier to expanded school use and to the community education concept, in particular, is cost. At this time, little analysis of the added cost of maintaining the "lighted schoolhouse" exists. However, authors generally agree that community education will engender additional costs. School boards hesitate to add to the burden of already excessive maintenance and utilities costs, solely in the name of community education. Either state incentive money or fee charges will be necessary to overcome this obstacle. In addition, good information on construction costs of sharing is lacking. How much more will it cost to include the public library in the school building versus a separate library building? According to DeJong, research demonstrates a reduced cost in construction, but, he adds, the big reduction is in client cost savings; considerably more clients use the multiple-use facility.

A final obstacle to sharing of educational facilities is the liability issue. Jurisdictions at all levels are being affected by skyrocketing insurance premiums and cancellation of policies; school districts are no exception. August Steinhilber, general counsel for the National School Boards Association, recently proposed that building use might be limited for nonschool activities as one strategy to meet the insurance crisis.

As indicated above, state policies on liability insurance for multiple uses of schools have been virtually nonexistent, leaving insurance decisions to local boards of education. Yale Stenzler, testifying at the second task force hearing, said he knew of no school district in Maryland that had been denied insurance because of sharing facilities. The St. Louis Park, Minnesota school system is often cited as a model example of full educational facility use and excellent property management. The St. Louis Park guidelines require renters of school facilities to "provide a certificate of liability and property damage insurance in the minimum of $25,000 property damage and $50,000 to $300,000 liability coverage ("School Facility Use Guidelines"). State of Hawaii facility guidelines require all applicants for use permits to submit a statement indemnifying the states against liability claims. In addition, for certain types of applications, such as carnival or fair, a general liability insurance policy of $500,000 to $1 million must be obtained, with the Department of Education and State of Hawaii additionally insured. For classes cosponsored by the school or PTA, general liability coverage of $50,000 to $100,000 is required. Careful planning and consideration by the local school board will result in required liability insurance coverage by school renters.

CONCLUSION

Numerous issues have ramifications for educational facilities as has been discussed throughout this paper. For example, a movement is underway to provide preschool for four-year-olds by public schools. If this policy is widely adopted, school facilities will need to accommodate the additional student population. This is a separate issue from preschool or day care programs sponsored by nonschool groups that rent space from public schools. If space becomes limited, these groups can seek other facilities. Care for school-age children is a growing need nationwide. Schools have space for such programs and, in all likelihood, will be asked by parents and child advocates to provide before- and after-school care. Again, this issue has implications for facility use. New educational strategies and reforms often require different or additional use of school space. For example, parental choice policies could affect school facilities greatly. It is important that policymakers consider innovative policies from a facilities, as well as an educational, standpoint.

Flexibility in the use of school facilities is essential as state and local educational agencies plan for the future. Indeed, there is no single facility solution in any jurisdiction; many options are available to meet the challenges of today and leaders must be responsive to policies that best fit community and neighborhood needs. School districts must be prepared to face either empty or overcrowded school buildings or perhaps both. Multiple use of school buildings appears to be the wave of the future. However, obstacles to shared use of buildings are numerous and school officials must be sensitive to demands on either side. The current insurance crisis, until resolved, may pose the most formidable barrier to joint use of schools. If agencies, nonprofit groups, businesses, and other organizations are invited into schools only to be told to leave due to insurance, overcrowding, or other problems, the goal of sharing school space will remain elusive. The deteriorating educational infrastructure presents another challenge to state and local

policymakers. Lessons of the past have taught us that the ability to remain flexible in view of the many challenges to school facilities is a key goal.

ENDNOTE

1/ The replacement figure is based on standard cost estimates from R. S. Means, Inc., Building Construction Costs Data, 1986. Costs per square foot, according to R.S. Means, Inc., is: elementary schools - $46.75; junior high schools - $57.80; senior high schools - $46.05. The rough estimate of public school space was derived by multiplying Means figures for average square footage of elementary (41,000), junior high (92,000), and senior high schools (101,000) times the number of elementary (52,726), junior high (11,695), and high schools (16,145). The latter figures were taken from "The Condition of Education" and do not include ungraded schools or combined elementary/secondary schools.

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SCHOOL FACILITIES: STATE ROLE

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Despite the central importance of school facilities to the enterprise of educating the nation's children, facility-related issues have been nearly bypassed by the recent educational reform movement and its accompanying research. Instead, the study of and interest in school facilities, with a few exceptions, has been the province of a rather small group of specialists, primarily educational facility planners and school architects. School business officers and school board members also exhibit an interest in the "bricks and mortar" aspect of education. What available research and case studies exist are found in the magazines and journals of these few groups.

In an attempt to fill the gap in knowledge regarding school facilities, the National Governors' Association Task Force on School Facilities, with cooperation from the Council of Chief State School Officers, surveyed current school facility provisions in the states and the District of Columbia. A mail questionnnaire was sent to all chief state school officers in March 1986 and a second questionnaire was mailed to states not responding by late April. All fifty states and the District of Columbia answered the questionnaire, a copy of which is included in the appendix. This paper presents and analyzes the results of the survey.

Advocates of greater use of school facilities often warn local school officials to check state law before opening the school doors to nonschool groups, as state laws may restrict such use. Consequently, the survey included questions about the state's role in encouraging or restricting the use of school property by outside groups. In general, it was found that school districts of the eighties are relatively unbound by state law, free to manage school facilities as they see fit. In the majority of states, local school boards can decide to lease or sell school property, to open the doors to other than school-related groups, and to make more extensive use of the school house. However, limitations on school facility use do exist and the admonition to check state law before taking action still makes sense.

Are there laws in your state which restrict the use of school property by other than school-age children?

Yes, 20 (39 percent)
No, 31 (61 percent)

Local school districts in most states are allowed autonomy in decisionmaking about greater use of school facilities. Sixty-one percent of the states do not restrict school districts that permit other groups to use school property. However, this figure understates the authority of school boards to manage the use of school property. In some cases, a positive answer

The author is grateful for the assistance of the Council of Chief State School Officers and the help of William Pierce and Ramsay Selden of CCSSO. Bill Harrison of the National Conference of State Legislatures provided invaluable advice. The cooperation of school facilities officers in the fifty states and the District of Columbia is greatly appreciated.

to this question refers to statutes that are enabling, rather than restricting, provisions.

In states such as California, Arizona, and Utah, civic center laws, in place for decades, explicitly mandate that local school facilities be available for public use, as long as the use is in the public interest.

There is a thin line between some of the positive and negative responses to question one. Among those answering positively, for example, Florida has liberal school usage policies but requires school boards to adopt rules protecting facilities and grounds. Montana's restriction on school facility use refers to an equal access guarantee. Massachusetts law is nonrestrictive: it authorizes local school committees (boards) to determine school property usage. South Carolina trustees may adopt rules and regulations regarding school building use for "other than normal school operations" as long as such rules do not conflict with state laws or state department of education policy. New Jersey regulations apply to sharing facilities while school is in session. Maryland encourages community use of schools. Priority is given, by statute, to nonprofit day care programs for before, during, and after school care; however, the day care program must comply with state health department rules and regulations. Oregon is another state with provisions to encourage community use of school buildings and grounds.

Only a few states statutorily restrict local use of school facilities. For example, Washington law stipulates that school property use must be "for a lawful purpose, in the best interest of the district and does not interfere with conduct of the educational program." Kentucky restricts shared use of school facilities to times when school is not in session. Iowa voters have the right to restrict their district's school facilities to school purposes only. Paragraph 414 of New York's education law specifies that use of schools for other than school activities during the school day must not be "disruptive of normal school operations." Delaware statutes provide detailed regulation of local school building use. In Nevada, school buildings are confined to "public school use generally and nonsectarian purposes specifically."

Does your state have statutory provisions regarding the leasing of school facilities for nonschool purposes?

Yes, 29 (57 percent)
No, 22 (43 percent)

Given the popularity of the community school movement and the trend toward multiple usage of school facilities in the 1980s, it is not surprising that a majority of states lack statutory barriers to local school district sharing of school facilities with community and other groups. On the other hand, leasing school facilities may represent a more permanent or long-term commitment of school space. Accordingly, states are more likely to regulate school leasing practices.

To be able to lease school property during school hours, schools must have excess space to lease, a condition faced by most school districts after the

baby boom period. Many locales, continuing to face a decline in school-age population, have found leasing excess space to be an attractive alternative to closing a school building or, more drastically, mothballing or demolishing it. Regardless of whether a district has excess space, space in schools may be leased before or after hours or during weekends. Leasing may provide additional revenue for the school district that may in turn be used for maintenance or other purposes, depending on state law. For nonprofit or other groups looking for reasonable rental rates, school space may be an inexpensive alternative.

Fewer than one-half of the states (43 percent) do not regulate local decisions on leasing school facilities. The remaining 57 percent of the states and the District of Columbia place a variety of restrictions on the local school board's authority to lease school space. Outright prohibition of leasing does not occur in any state. One group of state officials answered the question positively but indicated the provisions are, again, of an enabling, rather than a restricting, nature. For example, Kansas law grants local school boards the authority to lease school property while leaving details of the lease to the local jurisdiction. Oklahoma, Oregon, Tennessee, and Wyoming have similar provisions. However, Tennessee apparently restricts leases to "governmental entities, civic groups or community organizations..."

Certain states require that school leases be subject to confirmation by other entities or the voters. School leases in Hawaii must be approved by the state department of natural resources, while in Massachusetts the state commissioner of education must approve local lease agreements. The New Jersey education commissioner's approval is necessary if a school lease agreement exceeds five years. In New Mexico, the state finance board must endorse a local lease. Voter ratification of school leases is required in Mississippi if 20 percent, or 1,500, of the voters petition for a referendum. Iowa voter approval is necessary when the appraised value of the school property exceeds $25,000. Referendums must be held in Arizona if the lease is to exceed five years, and in New York, if the lease is for ten years or more.

Other state policies restricting a local school board's determination to lease school property include Idaho's admonition that school lettering on leased school buses must be concealed by the lease. Leased school property in Wisconsin must not be "needed for school purposes," rent must be reasonable, and leases may not exceed fifteen years. Illinois leases cannot exceed twenty-five years unless the lease is another educational entity or government agency. Florida school boards may lease facilities to other government jurisdictions or nonprofit agencies that benefit the community. An educational plant survey must precede a recommendation to lease. New York school leases may not be set at less than fair market rental value. Arizona leasing practices may not interfere with normal school operations.

What is the state policy on rental charges for school facilities?

Yes (a state policy exists), 13 (27 percent)
No (local board discretion), 36 (73 percent)
2 Did not answer

Generally speaking, whether or not to charge rental fees and how much to charge is determined locally. In three-fourths of the states the local school authority can determine what rate to charge and how to use the revenue. But in a dozen states local jurisdictions must follow state guidelines when leasing school facilities.

Wisconsin school districts can choose whether to charge rent or not except when renting to religious organizations, in which case rent must be charged. Wisconsin school districts are not allowed to make a profit from leasing. Maryland law states that local school jurisdictions may charge a reasonable amount for "heating, lighting, and janitorial services" when leasing school property. Both California and Delaware distinguish between rates charged nonprofit versus for profit groups. In Delaware, a fee schedule, approved by the state board of education, is used for profit-making groups. Regulation of charges is detailed in Hawaii.

The use of revenues from lease arrangements is regulated in certain states and the District of Columbia. While D.C. lease arrangements may or may not include charges, rents, and fees charged must be applied to operating costs, debt service on capital loans, and building improvement. Revenue from rent and sale of school property in Iowa must be deposited in "the schoolhouse fund." South Carolina school boards must apply school facilities rent to the district's school fund. When a long-term lease for school property in Indiana involves facilities purchased with money from the school board's debt service fund, the revenue must revert to that fund. Delaware requires leases to assume sole responsibility for property maintenance and comply with building and housing codes "so that there will be no cost or obligation to the school district for the continued ownership of such property" (Delaware Statutes, Title 14, 1057: b). Revenue from rental fees is applied to maintenance and operating costs for the leased property.

Do your state's statutory provisions allow schools to dispose of closed or surplus school buildings?

Yes, 48 (94 percent)
No, 3 (6 percent)

Selling surplus school buildings is almost universally authorized for school districts. Only Hawaii and the District of Columbia (both of which comprise a single school district), and Massachusetts gave negative responses to the question. Massachusetts school committees (boards) must transfer the surplus school to the municipal government, which, in turn, may dispose of the property.

Despite this seeming autonomy for local districts, regulation of the sale or disposal of school facilities exists in other states. In South Carolina, school trustees must obtain permission to sell school property from either the county board of education or county governing body. Revenue from the sale must be applied to the district school fund. New York and Arizona require voter approval for sale of closed schools. A public hearing must be held before the sale of a surplus school in Delaware. The property must be

offered first to other state agencies, and second, to the local government before it can be sold on the open market.

New Mexico school boards must follow a statutorily defined process in disposing of closed schools, with final approval needed from by the state board of educational finance. If a California school district owes the state money at the time of a school sale, the board must obtain state permission for the sale. However, this situation is rare. Proceeds from the sale of closed schools in California must be used solely for capital outlay purposes. In Maryland, the state superintendent must approve the county board's determination of an excess school facility.

Does your state have provisions for interagency sharing or joint use of school facilities?

Yes, 40 (78 percent)
No, 11 (22 percent)

School facilities may, if authorized by state law, be shared by other government entities, local, state, or federal. Government agencies, at all levels, lease office space. A 1979 study by the Governor's task force on community use of schools in Florida found substantial leasing by government agencies compatible with educational purposes, yet unused school space was plentiful. The task force recommended greater cooperative use of school buildings by other government agencies. In the late 1970s, the federal General Accounting Office studied the possibility of using surplus school buildings as a possible alternative to new federal office construction.

Examples of interagency sharing in school buildings can be found around the country, with recreation facilities and libraries common joint ventures. State and local offices housed in school buildings, such as Dunbar High School in Baltimore, Maryland, are less common and may require more than statutory authority to accomplish, i.e., changed attitudes toward single use of facilities. A different twist on the interagency sharing question has been offered in a California report by the State Allocation Board, "Handbook: Options Available to School Districts." The board encourages overcrowded schools to hunt for unused space in state and local office buildings.

The majority of states (78 percent) provide for interagency leasing of school facilities, but few take the comprehensive approach of New Jersey. New Jersey law explicitly permits sharing of school facilities with federal, state, or local governments as well as with private business. However, some states lacking provisions for such use (Michigan, Georgia, and New Hampshire) do not forbid the practice. Florida policies offer special incentives for joint use of school buildings: the state will pay up to one-half the cost of developing facilities used by schools and other government agencies. In the District of Columbia, D.C. agencies have preferential status when excess school space becomes available. Utah school districts share facilities when necessary and, in one instance, Utah and Nevada cooperate to jointly use a grade school on one side of the state line and a high school on the other.

In some instances, general authorization for local intergovernmental relations extends to sharing of facilities. For example, Kansas law "allows various agencies to contract with each other to accomplish their functions. The laws are broad enough to allow the sharing of facilities." In Wisconsin, "any action which can be taken by one agency can be undertaken with another." Wyoming has a joint powers act that enables government jurisdictions to interact for many purposes. Louisiana law allows government entities to enter into written agreements with one another.

Interagency use is more limited or subject to state approval in some states. For example, Mississippi requires approval of the state educational finance commission prior to joint use of school facilities. Joint occupancy in Massachusetts may not interfere with normal school operations. Kentucky law provides for cooperative use of school recreational facilities. New York joint use must be consistent with limitations in the state uniform fire prevention and building code. The major example of interagency cooperation in Nevada is for meal preparation for senior citizens. And in New Mexico, if joint occupancy is to occur during school hours or on a more permanent basis, the state board of finance must approve the arrangement.

Is there any statutory limitation in your state preventing schools from operating K-12 year round and/or extended day?

Yes, 5 (10 percent)
No, 36 (71 percent)
No, but funding formula may limit, 4 (8 percent)
No, statutes encourage year-round education, 6 (12 percent)

Year-round education is viewed as an alternative to new construction in school districts experiencing rapid population growth. In addition, year-round education may have positive academic side effects, including reduction in learning loss over the summer months. The Louisiana statute on year-round education eloquently states a major argument for a year-round school calendar:

> In order to provide for improved curriculum; to promote the maximum utilization of public schoolhouses and other school facilities; to increase the efficiency of administration; and to make possible the realization of the full potential of students and school professionals, the legislature hereby enacts this Subpart for the purpose of providing a program of year-round operation of the public schools of this state. The legislature finds that the cost of education is substantially increased when many physical school facilities sit idle for three months of the year and that the rural and pioneer conditions which dictated summer closing of public schools no longer prevails in many areas of the state (Louisiana Revised Statutes 17:341, Ch. 1).

Other states that have passed year-round education statutes include Arkansas, California, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Utah. Local school districts

in Arizona, Nebraska, and Vermont are authorized to establish a year-round school schedule but must obtain approval of the state department of education prior to implementation. Delaware, Idaho, Tennessee, and Wyoming do not statutorily limit year-round education but restrict state aid to 180 or 185 operating days. Obviously, this can effectively limit the school calendar.

Does your state have provisions regarding liability insurance for school leasing or sharing practices?

Yes, 10 (20 percent)
No, 40 (80 percent)
Not sure, 1

Liability insurance coverage is approaching crisis proportions for local governments, yet in 1986 over three-fourths of the respondents indicated an absence of state regulation over liability insurance for school building sharing practices. Some states without such policies indicated the decision is left to the local school board. In the near future liability insurance coverage may continue to be a problem greater than the local districts can handle and may inhibit greater usage of school facilities. Illinois passed a liability insurance law affecting all local governments, including school districts, during the 1986 legislative session.

The District of Columbia school system is authorized to require public liability insurance of any nongovernment group using school facilities. Hawaii law describes in detail the circumstances under which liability insurance is to be carried by nonschool users: the reader should keep in mind that Hawaii state government is the "local board" for the Hawaii school system. Arizona requires that leases demonstrate proof of liability insurance coverage prior to lease. Florida school law requires school districts to "adopt rules for protection," which may include certification of insurance, and, in particular, for activities involving admissions fees "and/or high risk use." Nonschool groups using school facilities in New Mexico must show proof of liability insurance coverage.

STATE FINANCING OF LOCAL SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION

Is your state involved in K-12 capital funding for school facilities?

Yes, 33 (66 percent)
No, 17 (34 percent)
not applicable for D.C.

There is a variety of funding arrangements, most of which have roots in the unique history and policies of each state. Practices range along a continuum with no financial support for school construction at one end and full assistance at the other end. However, two-thirds of the states provide some form of state aid for school facilities. In certain instances, state assistance is confined to an occasional capital improvement bond (Alabama) or guarantee of local school bonds (Texas). In Hawaii and Maryland, the state finances all or almost all capital funding of school facilities. Vermont, in the center of the continuum, supports thirty percent of school construction.

Of the states that provide aid for capital expenditures, just more than one-half (57 percent) have increased capital aid to local school districts over the past five years while 22 percent have decreased aid. Expenditures in the remaining six have remained stable.

One-third of the states leave the support of local school facilities entirely to the local school districts. In general these tend to be lightly populated midwestern or rural states. For example Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and South Dakota are among states that do not assist local districts with capital expenditures. Idaho does not fund local school construction but has legislative authorization should the legislature decide to fund a program. However, Michigan is one of the few urban industrialized states that does not support local school construction in some way.

Up to $90 per pupil of local debt service can be picked up by the state each year in Wisconsin under the existing equalization formula for state education aid. Kentucky has established a School Construction Commission that is providing $18 million in new funding for annual debt service in fiscal 1986-88. This amount will bond about $150 million of new school construction. Assistance from the School Construction Commission is in addition to the Kentucky minimum foundation program that for many years has supported capital expenditures. In fiscal 1986, this amounted to more than $53 million for school facilities. The Wyoming Capital Construction Entitlement program provides about $8 million of funding per year. South Carolina's major education reform initiative, the Education Improvement Act of 1984, resulted in increased funding for capital, as well as operating, expenditures. In 1986 Arizona modified its capital funding program for local school facilities to a per pupil capital aid plan equalized according to the property wealth of the school district. This produces an average of $145 per pupil for capital expenditures in larger school districts.

In 1986 Delaware provided support for major capital improvements at the rate of $4.4 million, minor improvements at $2.2 million, and school maintenance aid at approximately $800,000. Since Proposition 13 limited taxing capacity, school districts have had to turn to state aid in California for the bulk of their expenditures for school construction. Most of this has come from tidelands oil revenue. School districts may find new revenue sources with the June 1986 passage of Proposition 46. It allows California local governments to ask voters to increase taxes for capital expenditures. It is doubtful that Proposition 46 will immediately lower state assistance for local school construction in view of the considerable backlog of school building projects in the state. West Virginia voters will consider the "Better School Buildings Amendment," a $200 million capital outlay bond for the improvement and acquisition of school property in November 1986. Virginia assists with school facility costs through the Virginia Literary Loan Fund. Moneys going into this fund accrue from abandoned property and fines (about $36 million annually). The fund provides a maximum of $2 million per project for local school construction. In addition, the Virginia Public School Assistance Program authorizes the state to sell bonds on behalf of school districts. This pooling arrangement allows the school districts to get a better interest rate and bond rating.

Washington state's fund for school construction has been reduced in recent years as timber tax revenues, dedicated to school construction, have fallen. New Mexico funds school facilities through two mechanisms: the Public School Capital Improvements Act (1975) and the Public School Capital Outlay Act (1978). The improvements act functions primarily to assist poor districts with low assessed valuations to perform building maintenance. The fund provided about $14 million annually for capital improvements until 1986-87, when it dropped to $10 million. The capital outlay act offers assistance to school districts for "the most critical needs which cannot be met by school districts" after exhausting all other resources. Support levels have varied from $5 million to $23 million.

The Illinois Elementary and Secondary School Capital Assistance Program finances grants to local districts. Grant applications must include district facility plans. Minnesota helps poor districts with a school capital loan program. Eligible districts must levy at least 16 mills to pay their own obligations in addition to paying back the state loan. If, after thirty years, the district is unable to pay back the state all or part of the loan, the loan is "forgiven." The legislature added new criteria for loan eligibility a few years ago and in the past three years, only one new loan has been granted. Minnesota also requires review of all new school construction, remodeling, or improvement projects by the state department of education, prior to a local referendum for capital expenditures. The department may require districts to submit preliminary and/or final plans for approval. Large projects of over $400,000 must be submitted to the commissioner of education for review and comment prior to a referendum or solicitation of bids.

In funding capital expenditures for local school districts, does your state use an equalization formula taking into account property wealth or other indicators of local ability to pay?

Yes, 18 (58 percent)
No, 13 (42 percent)
20 Did not answer/not applicable.

States that fund local capital expenditures for schools are more likely than not to award money with a formula to equalize districts on the basis of wealth. The remaining states support school construction on a variety of bases including per pupil, qualifying need, per classroom unit, or a flat amount (for example, Vermont funds 30 percent of school construction costs across the board).

States that attempt to equalize school construction costs use a variety of formulas, some of which include a minimum and maximum rate of assistance. Massachusetts aid is equalized according to the wealth of the district within limits; each school district will, in general, receive between a minimum of 60 percent and a maximum of 75 percent per approved capital construction project. Georgia's share of school facilities takes into account the school district's property wealth per child with the range of assistance between 75 and 90 percent. Connecticut towns are ranked from one to 169 based on the town's property wealth ("adjusted equalized net grand list per capita").

Given the ranking, aid must not be lower than 40 percent or greater than 80 percent of the cost of capital projects.

Maine's financing law is based on local ability to pay determined by State valuation. A circuit-breaker formula for local debt service is included. Wisconsin's equalization formula tops off at $90 per pupil per year in debt retirement. Pennsylvania bases state support for school facilities on either of two factors: 1) the school district's permanent capital account reimbursement fraction or 2) the current market value and ratio, whichever is higher. New York aid is determined for each district annually, comparing the district's true value to the state's average true value. Arizona school districts receive capital assistance based on a formula that subtracts a qualifying tax rate on property from the district's state aid. Student count and other factors limit district budget growth. New Jersey uses a formula that divides the district's equalized valuation per pupil by a state guaranteed valuation minus one. Debt service aid utilizes the same formula, but is unlimited.

CONCLUSION

According to school facilities officials in state departments of education in the fifty states and the District of Columbia, school facility issues are managed primarily at the local school district level. By and large state maintain a "hand-off" attitude, eschewing the detailed oversight and regulatory role more typical of the state role in curricular, teaching, and classroom activities. Yet, in some states, facilities matters are highly regulated. In such instances, the state mandates nonschool groups may use school facilities, how much, if anything, the school board will charge the rent, how the revenue from renting school property may be spent, and whether other state and local agencies may share school space.

In two-thirds of the states, some form of state financial support for school capital outlay assists local school districts with the construction and improvement of school buildings and property. In more than one-half of those, state aid is based on an equalization formula, while in the remaining states, assistance generally is based on an across-the-board formula. The remaining one-third of the states leave the financing of school facilities to the local taxpayers and school board.

Local school facilities are deteriorating and the educational infrastructure faces a $25 billion repair bill according to a major study, "The Maintenance Gap." Local school governance authorities will be hard-pressed to pay this bill, in addition to constructing new schools as needed. Still, it remains to be seen whether the states will increase capital assistance to school districts to the level necessary to accomplish the recommended repairs and rehabilitation of schools.

THE STATE ROLE IN LOCAL SCHOOL FACILITIES
(Or State Provisions for Local School Facilities)

	Laws restrict school use	School leases regulated	State policy/ school leases	Disposal surplus buildings O.K.	Joint use provisions	Year-round education	Liability insurance for shared school use	Funding K-12 capital outlay	Funds increased, (I) decreased, (D) same (S)	Equalization Formula
Alabama				o				D		
Alaska				o	o			o	I	
Arizona		o		o	o	C	o	o		o
Arkansas		o		o	o	A				
California		o	o	o	o	A	o	o	I	
Colorado				o	o					
Connecticut			N/A	o				o	I	o
Delaware	o	o	o	o		B		o	I	
Florida	o	o		o	o			o	I	
Georgia				o				o	I	o
Hawaii		o	o		o	o	o	o	I	*
Idaho				o		B				
Illinois		o		o	o			o	D	o
Indiana			N/A	o						
Iowa	o	o		o	o		o			
Kansas		o		o	o					
Kentucky	o			o	o			o	S	
Louisiana	o	o		o	o	A	o	o	I	o
Maine	o	o		o	o			o	I	o
Maryland	o	o	o	o	o		o	o	I	
Massachusetts	o	o			o			o	I	o
Michigan	o	o		o						
Minnesota				o	o	A		D	D	o
Mississippi		o		o	o			o	D	
Missouri		o		o	o					
Montana	o			o	o					
Nebraska				o	o	C				
Nevada	o			o	o					
N. Hampshire				o				o	S	

A = year-round education provisions
B = funding formula limited to specific number of days
C = state approval is needed for district's year-round schedule
D = state assistance is in the form of capital bonds or guarantee of bonds

THE STATE ROLE IN LOCAL SCHOOL FACILITIES (Continued)
(Or State Provisions for Local School Facilities)

	Laws restrict school use	School leases regulated	State policy/ school leases	Disposal surplus buildings O.K.	Joint use provisions	Year-round education	Liability insurance for shared school use	Funding K-12 capital outlay	Funds increased, (I) decreased, (D) same ($)	Equalization Formula
New Jersey	o	o		o	o			o	I	o
New Mexico	o	o	o	o	o		o	o	N/A	o
New York	o	o	o	o	o	o		o	I	o
N. Carolina				o	o					
N. Dakota				o	o		o			
Ohio				o				o	I	o
Oklahoma		o	o	o	o		o			
Oregon	o	o		o	o					
Pennsylvania			o	o	o			o	S	o
R. Island				o	o			o	D	o
S. Carolina	o	o	o	o	o	o		o	I	
S. Dakota				o	o					
Tennessee		o		o	o	B		o	S	
Texas				o	o			D	N/A	
Utah		o	o	o	o	A		o	D	o
Vermont				o	o	C	N/A	o	S	
Virginia	o	o		o				D		
Washington	o	o	o	o	o			o	D	o
W. Virginia				o				D		
Wisconsin		o	o	o	o			o	N/A	o
Wyoming	o	o		o	o	B		o	I	o
D.C.	o	o	o		o		o	N/A		

A = year-round education provisions
B = funding formula limited to specific number of days
C = state approval is needed for district's year-round schedule
D = state assistance is in the form of capital bonds or guarantee of bonds

NATIONAL GOVERNORS' ASSOCIATION
PROJECT 1991
SCHOOL FACILITIES QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Are there laws in your state which restrict the use of school property by other than school age children? Yes _____ No _____

   If yes, how is school property uses restricted? _____

2. Does your state have statutory provisions regarding the leasing of school facilities for nonschool purposes? Yes _____ No _____

   If yes, briefly describe these provisions. _____

3. What is the state policy on rental charges for school facilities?

4. Do your state's statutory provisions allow schools to dispose of closed or surplus school buildings? Yes _____ No _____

5. Does your state have provisions for interagency sharing or joint use of school facilities? Yes _____ No _____

6. Is there any statutory limitation in your state preventing schools from operating K-12 year-round and/or extended day? Yes _____ No _____

7. Does your state have provisions regarding liability insurance for school leasing or sharing practices? Yes _____ No _____

8. Is your state involved in K-12 capital funding for school facilities?
   Yes _____ No _____

   If yes, over the last five years has state funding for K-12 school facilities increased, decreased or stayed the same? _____

9.* If the state provides funds to local school districts for capital expenditures, what is the ratio of state capital fundings to state operating cost funding? _____

10. In funding capital expenditures for local school districts, does your state use an equalization formula, taking into account property wealth or other indicators of local ability to pay? Yes _____ No _____

    If yes, briefly describe the formula. _____

*Answers to question nine were omitted from the analysis as the question was not clear to respondents.

PART THREE: Additional Resources

ADDITIONAL SOURCES

The reader who wishes additional research information and resource material is referred to the sources listed below. The clearinghouse is funded and coordinated under the aupices of the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management

The clearinghouse gathers research materials, papers, documents, and a variety of publications regarding the leadership, management, and structure of public and private educational organizations. In addition to other management and organizational issues, the clearinghouse is a data collector for material on sites, buildings, equipment for education, planning, financing, constructing, renovating, equipping, maintaining, operating, insuring, utilizing, and evaluating educational facilities.

Educational Management
University of Oregon
1787 Agate Street
Eugene, OR 97403
(503) 686-5043

Educational Facilities Laboratories

Educational Facilities Laboratories (EFL), a division of the Academy for Educational Development is a self-supporting organization that is involved in development of long-range planning for educational institutions, consultation on new educational facility projects, K-12 and postsecondary, educational specification development, enrollment projections, and other facility-related projects.

Educational Facilities Laboratories EFL/AED
1101 Trinity
Austin, TX 78701
(512) 474-7539

EFL/AED
2 East Avenue
Larchmont, NY 10538
(914) 834-2606